

721.

FORMULÆ INVOLVING THE SEVENTH ROOTS OF UNITY.

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LET ω be an imaginary cube root of unity, $\omega^3 + \omega + 1 = 0$, or say $\omega = \frac{1}{2} \{-1 + i\sqrt{3}\}$; $\alpha^3 = -7(1 + 3\omega)$, $\beta^3 = -7(1 + 3\omega^2)$, values giving $\alpha^3\beta^3 = 343$, and the cube roots α , β being such that $\alpha\beta = 7$; then $\alpha + \beta = \alpha + \frac{7}{\alpha}$, is a three-valued function (since changing the root ω we merely interchange α and $\frac{7}{\alpha}$); and if r be an imaginary seventh root of unity, then

$$3(r + r^6) = \alpha + \beta - 1,$$

$$3(r^2 + r^5) = \omega\alpha + \omega^2\beta - 1,$$

$$3(r^4 + r^3) = \omega^2\alpha + \omega\beta - 1.$$

Any one of these formulæ gives the other two; for observe that we have $\alpha^3 = -\alpha\beta(1 + 3\omega)$, $\beta^3 = -\alpha\beta(1 + 3\omega^2)$, that is, $\alpha^2 = -\beta(1 + 3\omega)$, $\beta^2 = -\alpha(1 + 3\omega^2)$; hence, starting for instance with the first formula, we deduce

$$\begin{aligned} 9(r^2 + r^5 + 2) &= \alpha^2 + 2\alpha\beta + \beta^2 - 2\alpha - 2\beta + 1, \\ &= -\beta(1 + 3\omega) + 14 - \alpha(1 + 3\omega^2) - 2\alpha - 2\beta + 1, \\ &= -\alpha(3 + 3\omega^2) - \beta(3 + 3\omega) + 15, \\ &= 3\omega\alpha + 3\omega^2\beta + 15, \end{aligned}$$

that is,

$$3(r^2 + r^5) = \omega\alpha + \omega^2\beta - 1;$$

and in like manner by squaring each side of this we have the third formula

$$3(r^4 + r^3) = \omega^2\alpha + \omega\beta - 1.$$

The foregoing formulæ apply to the combinations $r+r^6$, r^2+r^5 , r^4+r^3 of the seventh roots of unity, but we may investigate the theory for the roots themselves r , r^2 , r^3 , r^4 , r^5 , r^6 . These depend on the new radical $\sqrt{-7}$ or $i\sqrt{7}$; introducing instead hereof X , Y , where

$$X = \frac{1}{2} \{-1 + i\sqrt{7}\},$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{2} \{-1 - i\sqrt{7}\},$$

then if

$$A^3 = 6 + 3\omega X + (1 + 3\omega^2) Y,$$

$$B^3 = 6 + 3\omega^2 X + (1 + 3\omega) Y,$$

where

$$AB = i\sqrt{7},$$

we have (Lagrange, *Équations Numériques*, p. 294),

$$3r = X + A + B.$$

I found that, in order to bring this into connexion with the foregoing formula, $3(r+r^6) = \alpha + \beta - 1$, where as before $\alpha^3 = -7(1+3\omega)$, $\beta^3 = -7(1+3\omega^2)$, $\alpha\beta = 7$, it is necessary that B , A should be linear multiples of α , β respectively, the coefficients being rational functions of ω , X ; and that the actual relations are

$$B = \frac{\alpha}{7} \{4 - \omega + X(1 - 2\omega)\},$$

$$A = \frac{\beta}{7} \{5 + \omega + X(3 + 2\omega)\};$$

in verification of which, it may be remarked that these equations give

$$AB = \frac{\alpha\beta}{49} \{(20 - \omega - \omega^2) + X(17 - 4\omega - 4\omega^2) + X^2(3 - 4\omega - 4\omega^2)\},$$

viz. in virtue of the equation $\omega^2 + \omega + 1 = 0$, the term in $\{ \}$ is $= 21 + 21X + 7X^2$, $= 7(X^2 + 3X + 3)$, or since $X^2 + X + 2 = 0$, this is $= 7(2X + 1)$, $= 7i\sqrt{7}$; the equation thus is $7AB = \alpha\beta \cdot i\sqrt{7}$, which is true in virtue of $AB = i\sqrt{7}$ and $\alpha\beta = 7$. The same relations may also be written

$$-\alpha = B(\omega^2 + X),$$

$$-\beta = A(\omega + X).$$

I found in the first instance

$$3r = X + A + B,$$

$$3r^6 = -1 - X + A(\omega^2 - X) + B(\omega - X),$$

$$3r^2 = X + \omega^2 A + \omega B,$$

$$3r^5 = -1 - X + A(\omega - \omega^2 X) + B(\omega^2 - \omega X),$$

$$3r^4 = X + \omega A + \omega^2 B,$$

$$3r^3 = -1 - X + A(1 - \omega X) + B(1 - \omega^2 X),$$

which in fact gave the foregoing formulæ

$$3(r + r^6) = -1 + \alpha + \beta,$$

$$3(r^2 + r^5) = -1 + \omega\alpha + \omega^2\beta,$$

$$3(r^4 + r^3) = -1 + \omega^2\alpha + \omega\beta.$$

But there is a want of symmetry in these expressions for r , r^2 , &c., inasmuch as the values of r , r^2 , r^4 are of a different form from those of r^6 , r^5 , r^3 ; to obtain the proper forms, we must for A , B substitute their values in terms of α , β , and we thus obtain

$$3r = X + \frac{\alpha}{7} \{ 4 - \omega + X(1 - 2\omega) \} + \frac{\beta}{7} \{ 5 + \omega + X(3 + 2\omega) \},$$

$$3r^6 = -1 - X + \frac{\alpha}{7} \{ 3 + \omega + X(-1 + 2\omega) \} + \frac{\beta}{7} \{ 2 - \omega + X(-3 - 2\omega) \},$$

$$3r^2 = X + \frac{\alpha}{7} \{ 1 + 5\omega + X(2 + 3\omega) \} + \frac{\beta}{7} \{ -4 - 5\omega + X(-1 - 3\omega) \},$$

$$3r^5 = -1 - X + \frac{\alpha}{7} \{ -1 + 2\omega + X(-2 - 3\omega) \} + \frac{\beta}{7} \{ -3 - 2\omega + X(1 + 3\omega) \},$$

$$3r^4 = X + \frac{\alpha}{7} \{ -5 - 4\omega + X(-3 - \omega) \} + \frac{\beta}{7} \{ -1 + 4\omega + X(-2 + \omega) \},$$

$$3r^3 = -1 - X + \frac{\alpha}{7} \{ -2 - 3\omega + X(3 + \omega) \} + \frac{\beta}{7} \{ 1 + 3\omega + X(2 - \omega) \};$$

viz. each of the imaginary seventh roots is thus expressed as a linear function of the cubic radicals α , β (involving ω under the radical signs) with coefficients which are functions of ω , X .

Recollecting the equations $\alpha^2 = -\beta(1 + 3\omega)$, $\beta^2 = -\alpha(1 + 3\omega^2)$, $\alpha\beta = 7$; $\omega^3 + \omega + 1 = 0$, $X^2 + X + 2 = 0$; it is clear that, starting for instance from the equation for $3r$, and squaring each side of the equation, we should, after proper reductions, obtain for $9r^2$ an expression of the like form; viz. we thus in fact obtain the expression for $3r^2$; then from the expressions of $3r$ and $3r^2$, multiplying together and reducing, we should obtain the expression for $3r^3$; and so on; viz. from any one of the six equations we can in this manner obtain the remaining five equations.

At the time of writing what precedes I did not recollect Jacobi's paper "Ueber die Kreistheilung und ihre Anwendung auf die Zahlentheorie," *Berliner Monatsber.*, (1837) and *Crelle*, t. xxx. (1846), pp. 166—182; [*Ges. Werke*, t. vi. pp. 254—274]. The starting-point is the following theorem: if x be a root of the equation $\frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1} = 0$, p a prime number, and if g is a prime root of p , and

$$F(\alpha) = x + \alpha x^g + \alpha^2 x^{g^2} + \dots + \alpha^{g-1} x^{g^{p-2}},$$

where α is any root of $\frac{\alpha^{p-1} - 1}{\alpha - 1} = 0$, we have

$$F(\alpha^m) F(\alpha^n) = \psi(\alpha) F(\alpha^{m+n}),$$

where $\psi(\alpha)$ is a rational and integral function of α with integral coefficients; or, what is the same thing, if α and β be any two roots of the above-mentioned equation, then

$$F(\alpha)F(\beta) = \psi(\alpha, \beta)F(\alpha\beta),$$

where $\psi(\alpha, \beta)$ is a rational and integral function of α, β with integral coefficients. As regards the proof of this, it may be remarked that, writing x^3 for x , $F(\alpha), F(\beta)$, and $F(\alpha\beta)$ become respectively $\alpha^{-1}F(\alpha), \beta^{-1}F(\beta), (\alpha\beta)^{-1}F(\alpha\beta)$; hence, $F(\alpha)F(\beta) \div F(\alpha\beta)$ remains unaltered, and it thus appears that the function in question is expressible rationally in terms of the *adjoint* quantities α and β . With this explanation the following extract will be easily intelligible:

“The true form (never yet given) of the roots of the equation $x^p - 1 = 0$ is as follows: The roots, as is known, can easily be expressed by mere addition of the functions $F(\alpha)$. If λ is a factor of $p-1$ and $\alpha^\lambda = 1$, then it is further known that $\{F(\alpha)\}^\lambda$ is a mere function of α . But it is only necessary to know those values of $F(\alpha)$ for which λ is the power of a prime number. For suppose $\lambda\lambda'\lambda'' \dots$ is a factor of $p-1$; further let $\lambda, \lambda', \lambda'', \dots$ be powers of different prime numbers, and $\alpha, \alpha', \alpha'', \dots$ prime λ th, λ' th, λ'' th, \dots roots of unity, then

$$F(\alpha\alpha'\alpha'' \dots) = \frac{F(\alpha)F(\alpha')F(\alpha'') \dots}{\psi(\alpha, \alpha', \alpha'', \dots)}$$

where $\psi(\alpha, \alpha', \alpha'', \dots)$ denotes a rational and integral function of $\alpha, \alpha', \alpha'', \dots$ with integral coefficients. Hence, considering always the $(p-1)$ th roots of unity as given, there are contained in the expression for x only radicals, the exponents of which are powers of prime numbers, and products of such radicals. But if λ is a power of a prime number, $= \mu^n$, suppose, the corresponding function $F(\alpha)$ can be found as follows: Assume

$$F(\alpha)F(\alpha^i) = \psi_i(\alpha)F(\alpha^{i+1});$$

then

$$F(\alpha) = \sqrt[\mu]{\psi_1(\alpha)\psi_2(\alpha)\dots\psi_{\mu-1}(\alpha)F(\alpha^\mu)},$$

$$F(\alpha^\mu) = \sqrt[\mu]{\psi_1(\alpha^\mu)\psi_2(\alpha^\mu)\dots\psi_{\mu-1}(\alpha^\mu)F(\alpha^{\mu^2})},$$

and so on, up to

$$F(\alpha^{\mu^{n-1}}) = \sqrt[\mu]{\psi_1(\alpha^{\mu^{n-1}})\psi_2(\alpha^{\mu^{n-1}})\dots\psi_{\mu-1}(\alpha^{\mu^{n-1}})(-)^{\frac{n-1}{\mu}} p},$$

so that the formulæ contain ultimately μ th roots only. It is remarked in a footnote that, when $n=1$, the $\mu-1$ functions can always be reduced to one-sixth part in number, and that by an induction continued as far as $\mu=31$, Jacobi had found that all the functions ψ could be expressed by means of the values of a single one of these functions.

“The $\mu-1$ functions determine, not only the values of all the magnitudes under the radical signs, but also the mutual dependence of the radicals themselves. For replacing α by the different powers of α , one can by means of the values so obtained for these functions rationally express all the μ^n-1 functions $F(\alpha^i)$ by means of the powers of $F(\alpha)$; since all the μ^n-1 magnitudes $\{F(\alpha)\}^i \div F(\alpha^i)$ are each of them

equal to a product of several of the functions $\psi(\alpha)$. Herein consists one of the great advantages of the method over that of Gauss, since in this the discovery of the mutual dependency of the different radicals requires a special investigation, which, on account of its laboriousness, is scarcely practicable for even small primes; whereas the introduction of the functions ψ gives simultaneously the quantities under the radical signs, and the mutual dependency of the radicals. The formation of the functions ψ is obtained by a very simple algorithm, which requires only that one should, from the table for the residues of g^m , form another table giving $g^{m'} = 1 + g^m \pmod{p}$, [see Table IV. of the Memoir]. According to these rules one of my auditors [Rosenhain] in a Prize-Essay of the [Berlin] *Academy* has completely solved the equations $x^p - 1 = 0$ for all the prime numbers p up to 103."

I am endeavouring to procure the Prize-Essay just referred to. As an example—which however is too simple a one to fully bring out Jacobi's method, and its difference from that of Gauss—consider the equation for the fifth roots of unity, $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 = 0$. According to Gauss, we have $x + x^4$ and $x^2 + x^3$, the roots of the equation $u^2 + u - 1 = 0$; say $x + x^4 = \frac{1}{2} \{-1 + \sqrt{5}\}$, $x^2 + x^3 = \frac{1}{2} \{-1 - \sqrt{5}\}$. The first of these, combined with $x \cdot x^4 = 1$, gives $x - x^4 = \sqrt{[-\frac{1}{2} \{5 + \sqrt{5}\}]}$; and thence $4x = -1 + \sqrt{5} + \sqrt{[-2 \{5 + \sqrt{5}\}]}$; if from the second of them, combined with $x^2 \cdot x^3 = 1$, we were in like manner to obtain the values of x^2 and x^3 , it would be necessary to investigate the signs to be given to the radicals, in order that the values so obtained for x^2 and x^3 might be consistent with the value just found for x . For the Jacobian process, observing that a prime fourth root of unity is $\alpha = i$, and writing for shortness F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4 to denote $F(\alpha), F(\alpha^2), F(\alpha^3), F(\alpha^4)$ respectively, these functions are

$$F_1 = x - x^4 + i(x^2 - x^3),$$

$$F_2 = x + x^4 - (x^2 + x^3),$$

$$F_3 = x - x^4 - i(x^2 - x^3),$$

$$F_4 = x + x^4 + x^2 + x^3,$$

viz. we have $F_4 = -1$, $F_2^2 = 5$, or say $F_2 = \sqrt{5}$, $F_1^2 = -(1 + 2i)F_2 = -(1 + 2i)\sqrt{5}$; and similarly $F_3^2 = -(1 - 2i)F_2 = -(1 - 2i)\sqrt{5}$; but also $F_1F_3 = -5$, so that the values $F_1 = \sqrt{[-(1 + 2i)\sqrt{5}]}$, $F_3 = \sqrt{[-(1 - 2i)\sqrt{5}]}$, must be taken consistently with this last equation $F_1F_3 = \sqrt{5}$. The values of F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4 being thus known, the four equations then give simultaneously x, x^4, x^2, x^3 , these values being of course consistent with each other. It may be remarked that the form in which x presents itself is

$$4x = -1 + \sqrt{5} + \sqrt{[-(1 + 2i)\sqrt{5}]} + \sqrt{[-(1 - 2i)\sqrt{5}]},$$

with the before-mentioned condition as to the last two radicals; with this condition we, in fact, have

$$\sqrt{[-(1 + 2i)\sqrt{5}]} + \sqrt{[-(1 - 2i)\sqrt{5}]} = \sqrt{[-2 \{5 + \sqrt{5}\}]},$$

as is at once verified by squaring the two sides.